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# *Migration of High School Graduates from A Mississippi Community*

by

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and  
Willis Joe Robertson

## *Introduction*

The purpose of this study is to determine the amount, the direction, and the reasons for migration of a selected group of white high school graduates in a county seat community in a Mississippi hill county. Studies of migration indicate that there is a high net migration from rural to urban areas, that the migration follows a cyclical pattern and that it is selective for numerous social characteristics.<sup>1</sup>

According to the observed historical trends, the period of the study should be one of high migration from the country to the city. The Census of 1950 shows that Mississippi lost population during the preceding decade. The 1940 population of 2,183,796 was reduced to 2,178,941 by 1950, and to an estimated 2,153,000 persons by July 1, 1953. Of particular significance is the fact that the loss is drawn primarily from the rural areas of the state. The urban population shows an increase of 39 percent during the same decade.

The rural population of Winston County, the county in which this study was conducted shows a loss of 12.2 percent during the period and the urban population gained 53-percent. The county experienced a net loss of 2.3 percent from 1940-1950.<sup>2</sup>

Specifically, the study is designed to answer the following questions about the migratory behavior of high school graduates in Mississippi:

1. Are graduates from rural families more likely to migrate than graduates from urban families?
2. Does the prior migration of older siblings predispose the graduate to migrate?

The paper is based on the study: W. J. Robertson, "Out-Migration of High School Graduates from a Mississippi Community," unpublished M.S. Thesis, Mississippi State College, State College, Mississippi, 1953.

<sup>1</sup>See J. H. Kolb and E. deS. Brunner, *A Study of Rural Society*, New York, 1952 for a bibliography on Rural Urban Migration, p. 224.

<sup>2</sup>*Census of Population: 1950*, Vol. II, "Characteristics of Population," Part 24, "Mississippi:" Bureau of the Census, U. S. Department of Commerce, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington D.C., 1952.

3. If the graduate's first move after graduation is to college, is he more or less likely to return home?
4. Does the possibility of eventual induction into military service affect the graduate's decision?
5. How far does the migrant go when he leaves home for the first time and on subsequent moves?
6. How complete is the break with the home community?
7. How many migrants return and for what reasons do they return to the home community?

### *Design of the Study*

The study is designed as a statistical analysis of migration in a selected community. Louisville was selected because:

1. The town is large enough (5,282 in 1950) to be classified as urban.
2. The high school draws enough students from the surrounding rural areas to permit rural-urban comparisons.
3. The area is representative of the central Mississippi hill counties and the findings may be considered representative of this wider area.
4. The town is the locale for a study of community action currently being carried on by the Social Science Research Center.

The high school graduate was selected for study because he is at one of the crossroads or crisis periods in life. He is confronted with the necessity of making a choice between alternative courses of action. He can assume a position in the adult world as a wage earner or he can seek additional preparation through further education, apprenticeship, or other training. Any of the choices may require that he leave home.

Other reasons for studying the graduate is that school records are available which can give supplementary data. The graduates may be traced from these records to their parental addresses and from the parents to their present addresses. The graduates as a group have certain things in common and can be expected to follow some of the same patterns in their migration. The graduates can be isolated by year of graduation so that the migratory behavior of subsequent graduating classes can be compared.

A parent of the graduate was accepted as the informant except when the graduate was still living in the community. The parent would know the personal data required and would be able to give the best approximation of the graduate's reasons for migrating. It must be assumed, of course, that the



opinions of the graduates and the parents do not coincide in all of the areas investigated, but the opinions of the parents are the best approximation available for this study.

The graduating classes of 1947 and 1951 were selected because six years had elapsed since graduation for the 1947 group which was enough time for them to have completed a college education or a tour of duty in the armed services, and become fairly well situated in a job. The 1951 group would have had time to make the first move into service, to college, or to a job. For the first group, sufficient time has passed to estimate the permanence of the migration.

A graduate was considered a migrant if he was no longer physically present in the community for the major portion of the time. This is a somewhat broader definition of migration than has been used by previous studies. It is, however, in agreement with the enumeration procedure for college students inaugurated in the 1950 Census of Population.

#### *Characteristics of Migrants*

The population in this survey is a group which, according to other studies, should contribute a high proportion of its members to the stream of migration. Of the 111 high school graduates in the sample, 96 (86 percent) left their home community following graduation and prior to the time of the study (Table I). Four left with their families and 92 migrated as individuals. Of the latter, nine had returned and were living in the Louisville community at the time of the survey.

Table I  
Number of Graduates and Percent Migrating by Year of  
Graduation and Residence of the Family at the Time of Graduation

	Graduates	Migrants*	
	(Number)	(Number)	(Percent)
Total	111	96	86
Urban	64	56	87
Rural	43	36	84
No Answer	4	4	100
Class of 1947	41	33	80
Urban	25	23	92
Rural	14	8	57
No Answer	2	2	100
Class of 1951	70	63	90
Urban	39	33	85
Rural	29	28	97
No Answer	2	2	100

\* Includes nine who have returned to the community.

The graduating class of 1951 with 70 persons is considerably larger than the class of 1947 with 41 persons. The difference in size is largely caused by additional consolidation and some minor adjustments in school district boundaries. The 1951 class has a higher migration rate with 63 migrants, 90 percent, as compared to 33 migrants, 80 percent, for the 1947 class (Table I). The difference between the two classes is not significant, since a high proportion of the graduates from both classes do migrate, a few leaving with their families.

### *Residence of Migrants*

The graduates in the two classes are predominantly urban with 58 percent coming from urban families and 39 percent from rural families. Neither residential group shows a significantly stronger tendency to migrate than the other. This contrasts to the findings of other studies which have consistently shown that rural residents are more likely to migrate than urban residents.

When class and residence are combined rural members of the class of 1947 were slightly more likely to remain at home. While 86 percent of all graduates migrated, only 57 percent of the rural members of the class of 1947 did so (Table I). This compares with the migration of 92 percent of the urban members of the same class and 85 percent of the urban members of the class of 1951. One of the most notable aspects of this comparison is the fact that 6 of the 14 rural graduates in 1947 remained at home, while only one of the 29 rural graduates in 1951 did so.

The tendency to migrate is not significantly stronger for one sex category than for the other. However, when sex and residence are combined into four sex-residence categories, the differences among the four categories are significant. The graduates include 47 males, 42 percent, and 64 females, 58 percent (Table II). The rural females are the most likely to remain in the home community. Only one of the 15 non-migrants is a rural male, while six are rural females. There are 14 boys from rural areas who were graduated and 13 of them migrated. In contrast, six of the 29 girls from rural areas who were graduated remained in the community. There is no difference in the rate of migration for urban boys and girls, but rural boys are more likely to migrate than urban boys and rural girls are less likely to migrate than urban girls.

### *Socio-economic Status*

The families included in the survey were grouped into three status categories, high, medium, and low. The status categories are derived from scores attained by the families on a standardized socio-economic status scale.<sup>3</sup>

<sup>3</sup>William H. Sewell, "A Short Form of the Socio-economic Status Scale," *Rural Sociology*, Vol. VIII, June, 1943. For this study low includes 51-70, medium 71-80, and high 81 and over.

Table II  
Migration Status of the Graduates by Sex and Residence at the  
Time of Graduation

Residence and Sex	Total		Migrants*		Non-Migrants	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total	111	100	96	100	15	100
Male	47	42	42	44	5	33
Female	64	58	54	56	10	67
Urban	64	58	56	58	8	53
Male	32	29	28	29	4	27
Female	32	29	28	29	4	27
Rural	43	39	36	38	7	47
Male	14	13	13	14	1	7
Female	29	26	23	24	6	40
No Answer	4	3	4	4	-	-
Male	1	-	1	-	-	-
Female	3	-	3	-	-	-

\* Includes nine who have returned to the community.

The score is computed for the household and is a composite of several characteristics, including education of male and female heads, participation in organized activities, the size and structure of the house, and the possession of such consumption items as an automobile, electricity, and running water. All individuals in a household have the same score as the household. For the purposes of this study, the scores are calculated on the basis of the family situation at the time each subject was graduated. This represents an attempt to appraise more accurately the conditions influencing the graduate's decision to leave the community or to stay at home at the time of graduation.

The majority of the graduates come from families in the upper status group, 52 percent (Table III). This is to be expected since graduation from high school is considerably above the median educational achievement for the county and is more nearly typical of the families at the higher economic level. The median number of years of school completed by persons 25 years old or older is 8.1 years for Winston County. The parents of the graduates have a median educational attainment of 10.9 years for the males and 11.9 years for the females.

Some of the girls graduating came from the lowest socio-economic and educational groups. Girls generally have a better chance to acquire a high school education than do the boys from the lower groups because the

Table III

Migration Status of the Graduates by Sex and Socio-economic Status at the Time of Graduation

Status and Sex	Total		Migrants*		Non-Migrants	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total	111	100	96	100	15	100
Male	47	42	42	44	5	33
Female	64	58	54	56	10	67
High	57	52	51	53	6	40
Male	28	25	26	27	2	13
Female	29	26	25	26	4	27
Medium	36	33	29	30	7	47
Male	13	12	10	10	3	20
Female	23	21	19	20	4	27
Low	14	13	12	13	2	13
Male	5	5	5	5	-	-
Female	9	8	7	7	2	13
No Answer	4	4	4	4	-	-

\* Includes nine who have returned to the community.

boys are able to obtain work more easily and hence forego advanced education in favor of an immediate pay check.

No significant differences in migration appear in relation to status level. However, migrants are slightly under-represented in the middle status group and over-represented in the low status group. All five male graduates in the low status group migrated.

#### *Siblings' Migratory Behavior*

The 111 persons in the sample have a total of 279 siblings, of whom 153 are older, and 126 younger than the graduates themselves. At the time of the study 158 (57 percent) of the siblings were away from home. Considering only the siblings 17 years old or older (and hence within the age range of possible migration) 73 percent are away from the home community. While this figure is not as large as that for the graduate sample itself (86 percent), the difference may be explained by the fact that many of the siblings 17 and 18 years old have not yet graduated and there may be among them many who will follow the same patterns found among their brothers and sisters included in the sample of graduates.

The 105 families represented by the 111 graduates have on the average 3.5 children each. These families show a loss through migration of two children per family.

Table IV  
Migration Status by Migratory  
Behavior of Siblings

	Total		Migrants*		Non-Migrants	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total	111	100	96	100	15	100
All Siblings Away	34	31	32	33	2	13
Some at Home, Some Away	36	32	32	33	4	27
All at Home	30	27	23	24	7	42
No Siblings	8	7	6	7	2	13
No Answer	3	3	3	3	-	-

\* Includes nine who have returned to the community.

Thirty-eight of the graduates including eight who have no siblings, did not have any brother or sisters away from home at the time of the study. This group includes nine of the fifteen graduates still living in the community (Table IV). Four non-migrant graduates have some of their siblings at home and some away from home. Thus, only two of the fifteen graduates still living in the community come from families in which all their siblings have left the home community. These facts show a strong relationship in migration behavior among members of the same family. Graduates with older siblings away from home are more likely to migrate than graduates who do not have older siblings away from home.

#### *Reasons for Migration*

The Louisville graduates do not differ from the youth in other sections of the country in the reasons given for migrating. The educational and vocational goals of the youth cannot be met fully in the home community. There is little opportunity at home for the youth in the judgment of parents, for the most part only heavy labor with little chance for advancement.

The migrants can be classified into four groups according to the reasons given for migrating. These groups include (1) those leaving to obtain additional schooling (education), (2) those leaving to obtain a job (economic), (3) those leaving to enter military service (service), and (4) those leaving for miscellaneous reasons (other).

Of the group of 96 migrants, 59 (61 percent) fall into the first group, i.e., those leaving to obtain additional schooling. Eleven of the graduates



migrated to obtain jobs, 17 migrated to enter the armed services, and nine migrated for other reasons. This last group includes graduates who moved away from the community with their families, and graduates, mostly girls, who left because they married someone from outside the community. The information about the migrants in the last group is too scant to justify analysis.

A new factor affecting the migratory behavior of young people has been introduced as a relatively permanent feature of American life during the past 15 years, namely, Selective Service. Sixteen boys and one girl from among the graduates studied left the home community to enter the Armed Forces. Whether or not the graduates were inducted or enlisted, military service has become an impending alternative affecting other vocational choices of the graduates. When the graduates are classified by the reason for migration and sex, the male graduates are heavily over-represented among those giving military service as the reason for their first departure from the community. It follows therefore, that boys will be under-represented among the graduates who give educational or economic reasons for leaving the community. Conversely, girls are over-represented in the latter groups (Table V).

Table V  
Reasons Given for Leaving the Community  
by Sex of the Graduates

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total	96	100	42	100	54	100
Education	59	61	23	55	36	67
Economic	11	12	2	5	9	17
Service	17	18	16	38	1	2
Other	9	9	1	2	8	15

A considerably higher proportion of the graduates of the class of 1947 than of the class of 1951 went away for additional schooling. Seventy percent of the migrants from the class of 1947 left to attend school whereas only 57 percent of the migrants from the class of 1951 left for this reason. Military service and vocational interests were more important as reasons for leaving in the class of 1951 than in the class of 1947 (Table VI).

Residence and status also are related to the reasons given for leaving the community. The migrants coming from the families in the high status group left primarily to obtain further schooling. Three-fourths of the migrants from the high status group gave education as the reason for their initial



moves (Table VII). Nearly 50 percent of the migrants from the middle and lower status groups gave reasons other than educational for their initial departure from the community.

Table VI  
Reasons for Migration by Year of Graduation

	Total		1947		1951	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total	96	100	33	100	63	100
Education	59	61	23	70	36	57
Economic	11	12	2	6	9	14
Service	17	18	5	15	12	19
Other	9	9	3	9	6	10

Table VII  
Reasons Given for Leaving the Community  
by Social Status of the Graduates

Reasons	Total		High		Middle		Low		No Answer Number
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	
Total	96	100	51	100	29	100	12	100	4
Education	59	61	39	76	14	48	6	50	-
Economic	11	12	1	2	8	28	2	17	-
Service	17	18	11	22	3	10	3	25	-
Other	9	9	-	-	4	14	1	8	4

The graduates who were living in the urban center at the time of graduation were more likely to leave for additional education than the graduates living in rural areas, 68 and 58 percent, respectively. Graduates from rural areas were over-represented among the group leaving to obtain jobs, 19 percent as compared to seven percent for urban residents (Table VIII). Graduates from urban families also contribute a higher proportion to the group entering the Armed Forces. This can be ascribed largely to the scarcity of males in the rural group. Over 35 percent of the male graduates gave induction or enlistment as the reason for their first move, with hardly any difference between the two residential groups.

Table VIII

Reasons Given for Leaving the Community  
by Residence at the Time of Graduation

Reason	Total		Residence Urban		Rural		No Answer Number
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	
Total	96	100	56	100	36	100	4
Education	59	61	38	68	21	58	-
Economic	11	12	4	7	7	19	-
Service	17	18	12	21	5	14	-
Other	9	9	2	4	3	8	4

*Distance of Migration*

The first move of the graduate usually was for a short distance, 54 percent of the migrants remaining within a 100 mile radius of the community. The graduates who migrated to obtain additional schooling are the primary contributors to the short distance moves. Eighty-five percent of the graduates going away to school traveled less than 100 miles from the community on the first move. In contrast, 32 of the 37 migrants, 86 percent, leaving for other reasons traveled beyond the 100 mile radius from the home community (Table IX).

Table IX

Distance of First Move by Reason for  
Migration

	Total		Education		Economic		Service		Other	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Total	96	100	59	100	11	100	17	100	9	100
Within 100 miles	52	54	50	85	1	9	-	-	1	11
100 miles or more	41	43	9	15	10	91	17	100	5	56
Distance not given	3	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	33

The distance to the present address of the migrant is generally greater than the distance of the first move. Whereas, 54 percent of the graduates remained within a 100 mile radius after the first move, the present address of 53 percent falls outside the 100 mile radius. Among the migrants giving education as their reason for leaving, those living 100 miles or more from the home community increased from 15 to 44 percent. Among all other migrants the proportion dropped from 86 to 73 percent (Table X). With additional time elapsing for the class of 1951, there undoubtedly will be ever greater dispersion of the group.

The graduates who migrated for military reasons, in a majority of the cases, continue to be located long distances from the home community, although many of them have completed their tours of duty in the service. They returned to the home community for a short time, only to migrate again in order to get an education or a job.

Table X  
Distance to the Present Address by the Reason  
for Migration

	Total		Education		Economic		Service		Other	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Total	96	100	59	100	11	100	17	100	9	100
Returnees	8	8	5	9	1	9	1	6	1	11
Within 100 miles	32	33	28	47	3	27	-	-	1	11
100 miles or more	53	55	26	44	7	64	16	94	4	45
Distance not given	3	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	33

When the initial addresses of the migrants are compared to the present addresses it is apparent that subsequent moves tend to take the graduate farther and farther from home. If the initial break with the home is successful, distance is no longer a limiting factor in migration.

#### *Time of First Move*

Commencement speakers annually refer to the crisis characteristics of graduation. The high school graduate stands at one of the crossroads in life and must make a decision with respect to his future activities. The boys are faced with eventual induction into military service and some decide to enlist in order that they may have a choice as to the branch of service. Some graduates are planning to enter college, and some are planning to find jobs.

The decision made involved migration within three months for 65 percent of the 111 graduates. The urban group tended to migrate sooner than the rural group. Seventy percent of the former and only 60 percent of the latter graduates migrated within three months after graduation. This seems to indicate that there is less opportunity for urban graduates to work at home following graduation. Their alternatives are to work as laborers or as clerks in the community. In a few cases they may be employed in the family business. Others work sporadically or not at all until they enter college or enlist for military service.

The rural young people, in contrast, can help out on the farm. Migration for the rural youth frequently involves the rejection of a job rather than merely leaving the community to look for a job. Therefore, it seems logical that the rural youth may take more time in choosing migration.

The reason for migration was a primary determinant of the time of departure. The graduates planning to enter college left either for the summer or the fall semester and hence migrated within three months after graduation. Eighty-six percent of the migrants who entered college did so within three months. The migrants who left the community for reasons other than education were somewhat slower to make the initial move (Table XI). Of this last group only the older male graduates who were eligible for the draft were under pressure to make an immediate decision.

Table XI  
The Time of Migration by the Reason  
for Migration

	Total		Education		Economic		Service		Other	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
All Migrants	96	100	59	100	11	100	17	100	9	100
Within 3 months	71	74	51	86	8	73	11	65	1	11
4-12 months	7	7	2	3	2	18	2	12	1	11
13 and over	10	11	5	9	1	9	1	6	3	33
No answer	8	8	1	2	-	-	3	17	4	44

#### *Ties to the Home Community*

Migrants from a community frequently leave only partially, in that they retain many formal and informal contacts with and attachments to the community and service agencies. For example, they may leave their church letters, their bank accounts, and their voting residence in the home community. They may also retain some property.

The migrants studied did retain some contacts with and attachments to the home community. In fact, many of the parents did not classify their children as migrants. The parents assumed that the migrants were away for only a short time and would soon return to live in the home community. Each migrant retained family connections since a parent was the informant of the study. Seventeen of the 96 migrants were credited with no other contact than the family.

The informants mentioned 124 contacts retained by the migrants with the home community. Church membership was mentioned most frequently. The church membership of 59 of the migrants remained within the home community, thirty-five did their banking in the home community, 26 retained their voting residence and four owned property.

The ties with the home community vary with the reason given for leaving (Table XII). The majority of the ties were retained by the migrants away in college. Next to these were the migrants in the armed services who sent their money to their parents to be deposited in the home bank. The migrants who left the home community to work were the least likely to maintain formal ties with the home community. Migrants who left for further schooling mentioned 1.6 ties retained with the community as compared to 1.2 for migrants who left to enter the Armed Forces and less than 1 per person for those leaving for economic reasons.

Church membership was mentioned by over 60 percent of the migrants seeking educational or vocational opportunities or who were inducted. Bank-

Table XII  
Formal Ties to the Community Mentioned by Migrants,  
by Reason for Migration with Percent of Migrants  
Mentioning Each Item

Contacts	Reason for Migration									
	Total		Education		Economic		Service		Other	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	Number	
Number of Migrants	96		59		11		17		9	
Total mentions	124		93		9		21		1	
Average number per migrant	1.3		1.6		0.8		1.2		0.1	
Church membership	59	68	41	69	7	64	11	65	-	
Banking	35	40	25	42	2	18	8	47	-	
Voting	26	30	23	39	-	-	2	12	1	
Property	4	5	4	7	-	-	-	-	-	



ing was mentioned as a contact by over 40 percent of the migrants leaving for school or service. The voting residence was retained by 39 percent of these leaving to go to school and by 30 percent of all the migrants. This is an under-estimate of the true picture since very few in the graduating class of 1951 were eligible to vote at the time of the survey. When the figures are adjusted nearly 60 percent of the migrants eligible to vote had retained their voting residence in the home community.

In terms of the formal ties analyzed, the migrants studied retained relatively extensive ties with the community. A detailed analysis of the individuals reveals that the contacts are clustered and that if the migrant retains banking contacts he will most likely also have church and voting contacts. Only church membership appears singly with any degree of frequency as the sole remaining contact outside of family connections.

The majority of the migrants had visited in the home community within the past three months. Regular visits were made by twenty-one percent of the migrants every month or oftener. Eighteen of the 20 graduates visiting in the home community at least once a month gave education as the reason for leaving home. At the other extreme nearly a fourth of the migrants visited in the community twice a year or less. This group accounts for nearly half of the migrants leaving to enter the service or to find employment.

Difference in the number and kind of contacts are related to the reasons for migration. The educational migrants retain more ties and return more often than either the migrants in the armed forces or those who left the community for economic reasons. The distance to be spanned in order to maintain the ties and make the visits in most cases is shorter for the educational migrants, whereas the economic migrants have to span longer distances. The service migrants must be in visiting distance of the home community and be able to secure leaves in order to visit, but are not permanently established so they frequently retain their organizational affiliations.

#### *Return Migrants*

Nine of the 96 migrants have returned to the home community. Five of these belonged to the class of 1947 and four to the class of 1951. Since the class of 1947 is nearly half as large as the class of 1951 the returnees represent 12 and 6 percent, respectively, of the migrants.

The returnees in the class of 1947 include four females and one male, four urban residents and one rural, four leaving to gain additional education, and one for marital reasons. All of this group married local spouses. Two of the group indicate their stay is temporary.

In the 1951 class, four individuals have returned. Three of these are females, two are urban residents, one migrated to obtain a job, two to ob-



tain business courses, and one to enter the armed services. Of this group two were married to local spouses and the other two are single. All four indicate their return to Louisville is permanent.

Most of the returned migrants were females and were married to local boys. The majority thought they would remain permanently in Louisville. Most of the group had gained some additional training, although it was limited to finishing high school, business college, or junior college. Some of the migrants had returned just before the study was conducted and in the interview they reported that if their spouses did not find work, they would have to migrate again.

#### *Case Summaries of Returnees*

##### A

A is a twenty-four year old male, who resided in the urban area of Louisville. His migration record shows that he entered a nearby junior college in 1949 and later served a tour of duty in the armed forces which ended in February of 1953. He is married to a local girl and is employed in Louisville. He believes that his residence in Louisville will be permanent. A's return to the home community might be related to the nativity of his spouse and the availability of a job with his father when he returned from the service.

##### B

B is a twenty-four year old female who resided in a rural area before migration. She married a local boy in the fall of 1951 and left with him when he obtained work away from Louisville. Their return to the home community is only temporary. The reason for their return is the fact that both of their parents live in the Louisville community and the spouse's job lasted only during the winter months.

##### C

C is a twenty-four year old female who resided in the urban area before migration. She migrated in June of 1947 to a nearby urban center for educational reasons and returned to Louisville in September of 1947. She married a local boy. She then left again in October of 1950 and returned to Louisville in February of 1953 at which time she was interviewed. The return to Louisville may be only temporary because of the lack of available work in the home community.

##### D

D is a twenty-three year old female. She resided in the urban area before migration. In September of 1948 she migrated to a nearby junior college

to secure an education and returned in 1952 after graduation. She is married to a local boy and their residence in Louisville appears to be permanent.

E

E is a twenty-three year old female who resided in the urban area before her migration. She migrated in September of 1947 to a nearby urban center to attend a business school. She returned in August of 1948 and married a local boy. Her residence in Louisville seems to be permanent, because her husband is employed near Louisville and they like to live in the Louisville community.

F

F is a twenty-one year old female who resided in the rural area before migration. She migrated to a nearby urban area to obtain a business course in September of 1951, returned to Louisville in March of 1952, and married a local boy. It seems that their residence will be permanent in the Louisville community.

G

G is a twenty-year old female of urban residence, who migrated to a nearby junior college in September of 1951 after which she returned to Louisville. She made an additional move and returned to Louisville again in 1952 at which time she married a local boy. Her residence in Louisville seems to be permanent because she is married to a return migrant of the 1947 class and he is established in a job.

H

H is a twenty-year old male who resided in the urban area before migration. He migrated to the armed services in January of 1951, finishing his requirements to graduate from high school in the service. He returned to the Louisville community in February of 1952. He has been married but is now divorced. His residence seems to be permanent, for he has a job and is receiving additional educational training while living in the home community.

I

I is a twenty-year old female who resided in the rural area before migration. She migrated to a nearby urban center in January of 1952 and returned in May of 1952. She is single and lives with her mother; her father is deceased. Her residence in Louisville seems to be permanent.

### *Summary and Conclusions*

This study is concerned with the migration behavior of 111 high school graduates representing the graduating classes of 1947 and 1951 in the Louisville High School, Louisville, Mississippi. The class of 1947 includes 41 members and the class of 1951 includes 70 members. These two classes were selected because (1) for the 1947 group sufficient time had elapsed to permit them to complete a college education or a tour of duty in the armed services and to have become situated in a job and (2) for the 1951 class the graduates would have had sufficient time to make their first move either into college, into the armed services, or into a job outside of the community.

Of 111 graduates included in the study, 64 were from urban families and 43 were from rural families. Data on the residences of the families were not obtained for four of the graduates. The graduates came from families with relatively high status as determined by the short form of Sewell's Socio-Economic Status Scale.

A significant number, 96 or 86 percent of the 111 graduates had migrated from the community at the time of the study. Four of these left the community with their families and 92 migrated as individuals. Only nine of the migrants had returned and were living in the Louisville community when the study was made. The proportion migrating from the class of 1951 was greater than the proportion from the class of 1947, but a significant proportion of both groups migrated.

The graduates of the two classes are predominantly from urban families. For the entire sample, 87 percent of the graduates from urban families and 84 percent of the graduates from rural families migrated from the community. When class and residence are combined the rural members of the class of 1947 were slightly more likely to remain at home.

The graduating class included 42 percent males and 58 percent females, whereas the migrant group was distributed with 44 percent males and 56 percent females. The tendency to migrate is not significantly stronger for either sex category although male graduates are over-represented. When sex and residence are considered, however, the rural female is more likely to remain at home.

The socio-economic status of the high school graduates is somewhat above the average. The status difference among the graduates is not related to the migratory behavior of the graduates. However, migrants are slightly under-represented in the middle status group and over-represented in the low status group. All five male graduates in the low status group migrated.

Graduates with older siblings away from home are more likely to migrate than the graduates who have no older siblings away from home. The

graduates with no siblings away from home, or no siblings, predominate in the non-migratory group while those with siblings away show a stronger tendency to migrate.

The migrants were classified in four groups according to the reasons given for migrating: (1) those leaving to obtain additional schooling, (2) those leaving to obtain a job, (3) those leaving to enter military service and (4) other reasons. Of the 96 graduates who migrated a total of 59 left the community to obtain jobs, 17 entered the armed services and 9 left for other reasons.

Whether or not the graduates were inducted or enlisted, military service has become an impending alternative affecting the vocational choices and the migration behavior of the graduates. Male graduates are heavily over-represented among those leaving to enter military service and under-represented among the graduates who give educational, economic, or other reasons for leaving the community. Conversely, girls are over-represented in the latter three groups.

Migrants from the class of 1947 tended to leave to attend school, whereas migrants from the class of 1951 were more likely to leave for military and vocational reasons. Residence and status are also related to the reasons given for leaving the community, with the highest status and urban residence group being more likely to leave for educational reasons.

The first move of the graduate is normally for a short distance with migrants leaving to attend school being concentrated within a 100 mile radius of Louisville. The present address of the migrants is farther from the home community than the initial move. If the initial break from the home is successful, distance is no longer a limiting factor in migration.

The reason for migration was a primary determinant of the time of departure. The graduates who planned to enter college, left for either the summer or fall semester and hence migrated within three months after graduation.

In terms of the formal ties analyzed, the migrants studied retained relatively extensive ties with the community. The analysis reveals that the contacts are clustered and that if the migrant retains certain contacts he will most likely have other contacts. Only church membership appears singly with any degree of frequency as the sole remaining contact outside of family connections. Difference in the number and kind of contacts are related to the reasons for migration. The educational migrants retain more ties and return more often than either the migrants in the armed forces or those who left for economic reasons.

Nine of the 96 migrants had returned to the home community. Most of the returned migrants were females and were married to local boys. The majority thought they would remain permanently in Louisville. Most of the girls of the group had obtained some additional training before returning to the community.

The high rates of departure of high school graduates are a serious challenge to the people of the community and insofar as this is representative for Mississippi it is a challenge to the people of the State. A high school education represents a sizeable investment by the community and if less than 10 percent of the high school graduates remain in the community, the loss assumes phenomenal proportions. State and community leaders should give serious thought to the implications of these findings for the future development of the area.



## *Inaugural Remarks*

by

Ben Hilbun

Had this event occurred earlier in my life or immediately after my election as president, I might have been inclined to regard it as a kind of personal and professional triumph. As it is, I stand in deep humility before the tremendous responsibilities and opportunities of the office into which I have just been formally installed. In the presence of these distinguished citizens of my native Mississippi and other states, I am again the humble farm boy watching the dawn break in regal splendor upon the quiet beauty of a newly created dream.

Only in America could this hour have come to me. Nothing less than freedom at its refined best could have brought me from the furrow in the field to head this institution of higher learning and of public service. In an atmosphere of freedom and under a system of government which offer individual dignity and personal opportunity to those who will accept them, I have been permitted to find the Holy Grail of public service here by the living waters which flow from the heart of Alma Mater.

The role which I occupy in these exercises is not the product of my own worthiness. Rather, it is a living symbol of what friends can do for a man. What honor there is in this hour must be liberally shared with those who, over the years, have dreamed with me and labored with me for the common weal.

I am grateful to the Board of Trustees of Institutions of Higher Learning for giving me the opportunity and honor of serving the people of my beloved State through the medium of Mississippi State College, which I love with a singular and passionate devotion. I am also indebted to the faculty, the alumni, the students, and the people of Mississippi for accepting me so cordially and graciously as the eleventh president of Mississippi's land-grant institution of higher learning. Your confidence in my ability to direct the complex affairs of this institution and your willingness to assist me in every conceivable way give me a sense of worthiness which I trust shall be sufficient unto the demands of the office so long as I shall hold it.

Herewith is the text of the address of President Ben Hilbun delivered upon the occasion of his formal inauguration as the eleventh president of Mississippi State College, July 14, 1954.



I shall not attempt to be erudite or profound in this brief message. Instead, I shall carve a few earthly phrases out of my professional experiences and present them to you. I shall not be offended if you forget most of them or all of them before you leave this hall. But I will be a most unhappy man if you do not leave this building with a consciousness of my sincerity and of my devotion to the program of learning and of service which heads up in Mississippi State College.

Since the beginning of time creativeness has stemmed largely from great purpose. Broadly speaking, there have been two major incentives behind momentous movements. One has been the recognition of the needs of a people by those who have been placed in authority over them. The other has been the desire of those in authority to use the people as instruments for the accomplishment of their own selfish aims.

Justin Morrill, a member of Congress from Vermont, looked through the gathering storms of civil strife in the early 60's and saw a program that would open the door of opportunity and hope to his people for un-numbered generations. Our own immortal J. Z. George, then a member of the United States Senate from Mississippi, shared this vision with Morrill and gave unstintingly of his energies to the end that the Morrill Act creating a system of land-grant institutions became the law of the land. This law was destined to become an educational Magna Carta for the rural people of America. Its purpose was tersely summed by its author to be "Without excluding other scientific or classical studies, to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and mechanical arts, and including Military Science and Tactics, in order to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes in the several pursuits and vocations of life."

On October 6, 1880, in a modest frame building located on the present parade ground, which has echoed the marching feet of Mississippi's youth for a period of three-quarters of a century, General Stephen D. Lee, smart in his Confederate gray uniform, uttered the first words in the genesis of the Mississippi Agricultural and Mechanical College, now Mississippi State College. Without the light of experience with which to guide it, without adequate funds with which to finance it, but with a burning faith in the ultimate triumph of the purposes behind its creation, the brave old soldier of a lost cause steered straight into the teeth of the storms of opposition which blew out of legislative halls against it. His ears were tuned to the cry of the people who yearned for the kind of leadership it was prepared to offer and not to the shouts of those who were willing to crucify a great movement either because they cared more for the spoils of personal victory than for the blessings of social, intellectual, and economic advancement.

Launched upon its career for two great basic purposes, namely teaching the youth of Mississippi effectively in its prescribed areas and rendering to the people of the state the highest possible measure in public service

through its division dedicated to that program, Mississippi State College still holds to these two fundamental principles. Nothing has happened in the last 76 years to justify new major deviations from those great objectives. Nothing will happen in the next thousand years to warrant the abandonment of them. On the other hand, our leadership must be bold enough to make adjustments, revisions, and expansions in order that the philosophy of this institution may be effectively translated into the minds and the homes and the hearts of our people. As we move in our course, let us be mindful of this admonition of Alexander Pope:

Be not the first by whom the new is tried.  
Nor yet the last to lay the old aside.

We have just reason to be proud of the public service record of Mississippi State College, especially in the broad areas of research and extension. These public services have been the silent guests of our rural and urban homes for many, many years. The burdens of our people have been made lighter and the hearts of our youth have been made brighter because of them. Raising the economic level through the lever of public services has been the modern version of the fire by night and the cloud by day which led an ancient people out of bondage into freedom. One is staggered by merely reflecting upon the accomplishments of our state during the last three-quarters of a century, and Mississippi State College points with pride to the fact that she has ridden with the fortunes of our people, sharing in their moments of ecstasy and in their hours of despair.

Our imagination runs riot when we contemplate the potential of the hundred and five thousand young people enrolled now in 4-H Club programs, the founder of which was the late W. H. "Corn Club" Smith, fifth president of Mississippi State College. Learning without the lure of credits or the magnetism of credit hours is becoming a habit with these young people in the vigor of their youth. There is developing in them a pattern of thought and a way of quantity and quality of leadership for which the world hungers and to which the people turn their eyes and their hearts in hopeful expectation.

Perhaps at no time have we in America been more conscious of the value of and the necessity for basic and applied research than we are today. Our scientists have opened the doors to fantastic treasures which are to be shaped for human happiness or human woes. Some of these discoveries cause us initially to pull back, to shudder, to fear. A more sober purview, however, raises hopes for the eventual happiness of mankind if they are bent to fit the dreams and the needs of the human race.

The inquisitive mind must continue to seek out the truth. Complacency can have no place on a college campus where young men and young women gather for preparation and direction. "More light that I may see the truth, and more wisdom that I may guide safely through the shadows of frustration

those who sit at my feet" should be the constant, fervent prayer of the researcher and the teacher. God forbid that the day should ever come when we shall seek the truth halfheartedly or when our major objective in teaching is merely to end the hour.

No function of the land-grant college is more urgent or more important than that of instruction. The opportunity to open up new vistas to the youthful mind and to kindle the fires of holy purpose in the youthful heart is a God-given one which should cause the material perquisites to retreat to the background when contemplated by the professional educator. Freedom to perform his duties without fear or restraint, but with a keen discernment of the responsibilities of that freedom, is the rightful expectancy of the college teacher. Nothing less will suffice for him or for those who come to him for intellectual stimulation and growth.

The dawning of higher education's great day is now breaking upon us. How we shall behave will determine the future stature of our profession. We can no more stand still in the cross currents of a changing world than can an ox in a treadmill.

When the power of matter flings out a challenge to the power of the spirit even the stars in the heavens lose their neutrality. Within recent days the power of matter, a newly created monster in our intellectual orbit, has scooped islands out of the sea with its ladle of fury and has sent its crest of wrath roaring into the peaceful heavens with the awesome grandeur that defies man's power to comprehend or to describe. The healing power of the spirit follows the destructive power of matter like the deep waters that rush in and hide the cavern that was once an island or like the sky that folds its azure garment about the billowing wrath of a hydrogen bomb.

Teaching only what is in the book is not enough in our day. It must possess a satisfying spiritual quality that gives wings to hope and substance to faith. Along with formulas and theories must be taught the art of gracious living, for it is in the latter that the soul is mirrored in its full beauty and power.

For three-quarters of a century the reward of Mississippi State College has been its measure of service to the people. Its degree of happiness is in the quiet consciousness of their love and respect. From rural and urban homes have come the youthful souls to whom vision has beckoned. They have been received into the great traditions of Lee and his successors with a love and affection that spring from an appreciation of human values. Here on the campus of Mississippi State College the working boy has not been aware of his economic limitations nor has the boy of wealth been made to feel that there is greater value in what he *has* than in what he *is*.

My highest hope is that I shall continue to humble myself in contrite services before the people whose confidence, whose friendship, and whose love have lifted me up to the presidency of a great institution of higher learning. Today, in your presence, I dedicate myself to the services of a people who, though poor in material wealth, are rich in honor; and who, though humble in spirit, are the proud possessors of a priceless heritage.

## *The Trouble With I.B.M.*

by

Henry C. Bush

Items like the following appear increasingly and distressingly frequently in these times:

[Of the Canadian disclosures of Soviet espionage in 1946:] A Royal Canadian Mounted Police official estimated the mass of documentary evidence already accumulated [in February, 1946] weighs four tons.<sup>1</sup>

When World War II came to a close the Federal Government had from 18,000,000 to 20,000,000 cubic feet of records, which would have packed eighteen buildings the size of the National Archives....Great quantities have been discarded, but the process of selection has been almost impossibly difficult. The whole history of the United States, up to Pearl Harbor, occupies a mere 700,000 cubic feet.<sup>2</sup>

M. P. 's including Mr. [Anthony] Eden, were questioning the President of the Board of Trade in the [House of] Commons yesterday on why three weeks must elapse before the tariff changes agreed at Geneva can be made known.

The answer...is...the document is so enormous that the United Nations printing presses are having trouble in digesting it.

Tariff schedules alone weigh 8 lb. and cover 1,600 pages—a record for any international document of this kind. United Nations is aiming to publish it simultaneously in all the countries involved.

Even this colossal work will, by itself, leave no one the wiser. Only the new tariffs are published, not the old. To find out what the changes involve would take one man part of a lifetime.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>London *Daily Telegraph and Morning Post*, February 25, 1946.

<sup>2</sup>Henry Pringle, "Heirs of Plutarch," *New York Times Book Review*, March 24, 1949, p. 6.

<sup>3</sup>London *Daily Telegraph and Morning Post*, October 30, 1947.



It seems reasonably certain that, in the near future, in the face of such mountains of data, the individual investigator in the fields of contemporary history, political science, political economy, and international relations will find it less and less fruitful to concern himself with elaborate exegesis of specific actions, documents, and individuals, however prominent, and more and more fruitful to concern himself with large group actions and series of group actions, with masses of symbols, and with masses of large groups of persons. He will have to resort to quantitative techniques and be content with, in the way of findings, lesser probabilities "true" of larger masses of data.

An increase in resort to quantitative methods means an increase in interest in labor-saving devices to process large quantities of data. I come now to the purpose of this note: the trouble with I. B. M. The writer has just spent several years doing a theme analysis of some 47,000 British national newspaper and House of Commons' opinions about the United States and the Soviet Union.<sup>4</sup> The study is probably unique in at least this minor sense — it was punched on I. B. M. cards, machine sorted, then, because the writer had to go to Japan to teach and because there are no I. B. M. machines in Japan, it was reproduced on data sheets and hand-sorted in Japan. The following warnings are offered to future investigators who may do quantitative studies involving many possible variations of data, and who may be enamoured of the work-saving possibilities of the mechanical or electronic counter-sorter machine:

(1) Unless counter-sorter machines are available full-time for research purposes — a rare thing! — it is difficult to fight a job through the normal, and normally heavy, flow of accounting work which the machines are designed and used to perform. Most individual research in social science is done by teachers. Teaching, especially for younger men, is a somewhat migratory profession. A man often begins research here and concludes it somewhere else. I. B. M. machines exist in most American cities, but the priority of a private investigation when accounts must be figured (and wherever the machines are there are always accounts to be figured) is slight.

(2) The probability of successful sorting and counting by remote control is slight. If the investigator has money enough this can be done, but I have never heard of an individual investigator, particularly a young one, in the social sciences, who had money enough. It is probable that the investigator who uses I. B. M. will do his own sorting-counting to save fantastic labor costs and also because he will probably find it exceedingly difficult to explain to anybody with the usual accounting department habits just what

<sup>4</sup>"British Press and Parliamentary Opinion About the United States and the Soviet Union, 1946-1950," (Doctoral thesis, University of Chicago, 1954).



numerical correlations he is anticipating and just how to sub-sort the sorts in case this or that reasonably early sort happens to be reasonably large (or what he means by "reasonably"). To proceed backward, he will find at the beginning of his study that I. B. M. is designed for accounting and that explanations of what the machines can do for the investigator and what he must do for the machines (how to arrange his numerical symbols), both by members of I. B. M. -using units and in the fat books published by the International Business Machines Corporation, are in terms of accounting. The investigator will probably learn the hard way the difficulties of arranging a number system suited ideally to both the I. B. M. counter-sorter machine and to the probable frequencies and interrelations of his data items.

(3) Unless all final categories (final sub sorts) yield a fairly large number of data items (more than say a minimum of 100), an unlikely thing in any really complicated piece of social science inquiry, the enormous rate of mechanical or electronic counting and sorting is no great clue to the actual time rate at which the work will be done. If sorts are many, the sorter (the investigator) will spend much more time removing sorted piles of cards and identifying them and finding odd corners in a busy office in which to stack and cross-stack them than he will spend running the machine, by much.

A fairly elaborate system of tabbed loose-leaf data sheets, together with a numerical or alphabetical code, can be invented at the start of the study, designed to fit the particular findings anticipated, and data can be recorded in single sheet categories which can later be counted visually at a fairly rapid rate, and the whole thing will be portable and can be used sitting down in the owl hours in which most lucubration is done.

(4) When one uses I. B. M., multiple sorting-counting tends to be substituted for thought. Seldom in any piece of extended social science inquiry — certainly seldom in political science! — does the data exactly and precisely prove or disprove the interrelated hypotheses. And no machine designed solely to separate and count can supply the element of creative imagination to interpret or even identify the unexpected finding. (Obvious as this is one hears teachers and graduate students talk about "putting out a batch of questionnaires, then putting them through the machines to see what I've got.") In somebody's officeful of I. B. M. apparatus, at a machine rental rate of five or ten dollars an hour, the poor investigator is likely to be thinking about that five or ten dollars an hour and not about the creative task. So, in order to apply his imagination at a more reasonable rate, home after office hours, he tends to make every possible sort. Every possible sort, in any large study involving many categories multiply related to represent the complex original meanings, means a lot of sorting, (at five to ten dollars an hour). Also, it tends to be meaningless.

The above objections, particularly applicable to the use of mechanical counter-sorter equipment in investigations of political and international phenomena, of course do not apply to research in which data items are very many but variations are few. For such tasks I. B. M. saves much time and money.

## *American Gothic:*

### THE STORY OF THE PHILADELPHIA CENTENNIAL OF 1876

By

Nancy Kizer

#### *VIII. The Pursuit of Happiness*

Philadelphia being Philadelphia and the Victorian Age being Victorian, the Centennial proper was primarily concerned with being proper. Amusement was not, then, encouraged within the precincts of Fairmont Park. For frivolity one had to go outside the grounds. Nevertheless, Americans have always learned to find amusement in a variety of sober guises, be they quilting parties, barn-raising, or centennials. So, one could enjoy himself "on the grounds."

For ten cents one could buy soda water from fountains almost as gorgeous as the figure laden "Minnehaha," an edifice of black and variegated marble where one could watch one's soda pouring from a bronze lion's head; he could get free ice water at a number of places; or, if he chose, he could sit near the Catholic Total Abstinence Fountain and drink whiskey purchased on the grounds.<sup>1</sup>

Other than surreptitious glimpses of ankles provided by the cooling apparatus, the diversions on the grounds were usually highly educational. Hosts of visitors entertained themselves by climbing the towers or into the torch of a giant hand of liberty to watch the panorama of the fair.<sup>2</sup> In a sense, the visitors at the fair were themselves diverting. Glimpses of the native costumes of the Chinese, Italian, Germans, Laplanders, Swiss wood carvers, and veiled Turkish beauties — all heretofore unknown except in travel books — were of constant interest.<sup>3</sup> In the Chinese exhibits, crowds would mix education with human interest by watching the bargaining at the stands and bazaars. In the excitement one might overlook such important inventions as the telephone, but the human interest never lagged.

Herewith is the final instalment of a series of articles based on Mrs. Kizer's thesis for the M.S. degree at Mississippi State College.

<sup>1</sup>Ingram, *op. cit.*, pp. 8, 288; Walker, *op. cit.*, I, p. 510; *Visitor's Guide*, p. 8.

<sup>2</sup>Partridge, *op. cit.*, p. 115.

<sup>3</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 119.

The two hundred acres of Fairmont Park were filled with pedestrians and with the old, weak, or effeminate in hired rolling chairs.<sup>4</sup> The occupants of the latter were regarded with open disdain — and perhaps with secret envy — by the masses. At any rate, the denizens of the rolling chairs were "unmistakably the object of scorn for those on foot, akin to the superciliousness of early risers."<sup>5</sup> For five cents, a visitor could take a three-mile-long ride on a narrow gauge railroad to get a good over-all view of the attractions.<sup>6</sup> For three cents, he could ride on an elevated railway across Belmont ravine lying between Agricultural and Horticultural Hall.<sup>7</sup>

The hours that the fair was open, 9 a.m. to 6 p.m., could account for some of the dearth of theatrical amusements.<sup>8</sup> These, however, were provided for every degree of culture or finance by twelve Philadelphia theaters listed in the *Visitor's Guide*. The bills ranged from opera, through dramatic performances and variety shows, to minstrels. The admission prices began at twenty-five cents at a number of theaters, while the high for boxes was usually ten dollars.<sup>9</sup>

The amusements off the grounds offered great variety. On the Pennsylvania Railroad visitors could visit Breeze Point Park or Belmont Park for the races.<sup>10</sup> They could attend Wanamaker's famous Sunday School,<sup>11</sup> or one of Philadelphia's 503 churches representing thirty-four denominations. Among the buildings of public interest in Philadelphia suggested for visits were Independence Hall, the U. S. Mint, the Museum, the Asylum for the Blind, Institute for the Deaf and Dumb, Blackley Almshouse, the House of Correction, the County Prison, Eastern Penitentiary, and — for a most fitting ending to such a jaunt — the County Morgue.<sup>12</sup>

Visitors desiring a more exciting tour might choose "Shanty Town," with its hotels and boarding houses of "vulgar aspect," which had been "run-up" especially for the occasion. There one could find "low forms of vice, and contemplation of the worst forms of a stubborn ugliness."<sup>13</sup> Here was much of the modern midway in embryo.

<sup>4</sup>What is the Centennial, p. 4.

<sup>5</sup>Characteristics of the International Fair: Number 4," loc. cit., p. 498.

<sup>6</sup>Visitor's Guide, p. 8.

<sup>7</sup>Ingram, op. cit., pp. 692-693.

<sup>8</sup>Visitor's Guide, p. 8.

<sup>9</sup>Ibid., p. 38.

<sup>10</sup>Idem.

<sup>11</sup>Ingram, op. cit., p. 272.

<sup>12</sup>Visitor's Guide, pp. 37, 45.

<sup>13</sup>Characteristics of the International Fair: Number 2," loc. cit., pp. 233, 234.

Tiring of the Exposition at Philadelphia, the visitor could take some of the suggested boat trips ranging from a five cent ride on the ferry leaving every fifteen minutes for Camden, New Jersey, to a Monday, Wednesday, or Friday ride to Leipsic, Delaware, for one dollar. He could also rent a houseboat or a row boat or charter a sloop or schooner-yacht on the Delaware and the Wissahickon rivers.<sup>14</sup>

If the desire to get away from it all was too overwhelming, the *Guide* suggested a stay at Atlantic City or other nearby beach resorts. Armed with good advice from that document, the visitor would know that he should bathe between 10:30 and 12:00 a.m.; that he could rent a suit, a towel, or an attendant; that fifteen minutes was the proper amount of time for him to stay in the water and thirty minutes the absolute maximum for his health and safety; that dancing parties (hops) were frequent; and that he should bargain carefully before engaging a carriage. If he could keep free of greedy hackies, the *Guide* promised a week's stay at the seaside for a mere ten to twenty-five dollars.<sup>15</sup>

On the four great occasions — Opening Day, Pennsylvania Day, the Fourth of July, and Closing Day — no one felt any desire to leave town. It is impossible to tell just how many visitors came on May 10 for the opening ceremonies because the turnstiles were not working, but it has been estimated that between 150,000 and 200,000 persons were present.<sup>16</sup>

A Centennial opening program full of the usual marching of bands and Commission dignitaries was given an added zest by the presence of President and Mrs. Grant and the first crowned head — except the King of the Sandwich Isles — to visit the United States.<sup>17</sup> This offspring of the Portuguese ruling house, Dom Pedro II of Brazil, appealed mightily to the chauvinism of the American crowd by his eulogy on our superior development of resources.<sup>18</sup> Americans were democratic but not too democratic to accept their tribute from royalty. Thereafter pleased reporters spoke of the "eagerness" with which the "handsome Emperor and his beautifully dressed wife examined... every feature of our industry" and noted that "His Majesty Dom Pedro II... was always greeted with high respect and utmost good will."<sup>19</sup>

Both the Emperor and President Grant contributed to the actual opening of the fair by turning the screw of the Giant Corliss engine immediately following the President's short speech declaring the Centennial open.<sup>20</sup>

<sup>14</sup> *Visitor's Guide*, p. 46.

<sup>15</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 47.

<sup>16</sup> Ingram, *op. cit.*, p. 81.

<sup>17</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 81; Trout, *op. cit.*, p. 43.

<sup>18</sup> Walker, *op. cit.*, II, p. 18.

<sup>19</sup> *Idem.*

<sup>20</sup> Trout, *op. cit.*, p. 43.



Wagner's "Grand Centennial March" played at the opening exercises set the theme for the fair, because from that date to the closing "scarcely a day passed without a parade of some sort."<sup>21</sup> The greatest and grandest marching parades of all time came as a part of the Fourth of July Celebration. On the morning of July 3 the parade of the G. A. R. took place — the largest turnout the order ever made, with 5,000 men in line.<sup>22</sup> These were joined by the orphans of Civil War Soldiers.

The parade of parades was, however, the giant torchlight procession on the midnight of the third. The number of spectators on Broad and Chestnut Street was estimated at least 300,000. Dom Pedro's popularity was still high as seen by the illuminated transparency with the words "Welcome, Dom Pedro" along the route.<sup>23</sup> The grand climax came from the old steeple in the State House, where a replica of the Liberty Bell tolled in the hundredth Independence Day.

Congress having come from Washington for the purpose, as many spectators as possible crowded to see Richard Henry Lee, grandson of Light-horse Harry, presented the original Declaration of Independence to that body in Independence Hall. The evening was climaxed with a giant display of fireworks.<sup>24</sup>

All accounts of the Centennial speak of the serious overcrowding during the week celebrating Independence Day, when some 150,000 persons poured into the city.<sup>25</sup> Pennsylvania Day, however, attracted the largest attendance for a single day, around 275,000.<sup>26</sup> This event commemorated the hundredth year of the completion of Pennsylvania's organization as a state.<sup>27</sup>

After July 4, crowds fell off. The weather was at fault here because from the middle of June until late in July the thermometer hovered at or above ninety degrees, and on July 9 it reached 102 degrees in the shade. Admissions fell to 25,000 daily during the "terrific" heat.<sup>28</sup> A second authority reports the number of mid-summer visitors as being even fewer.<sup>29</sup>

<sup>21</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 43.

<sup>22</sup> Ingram, *op. cit.*, p. 652.

<sup>23</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 654.

<sup>24</sup> Trout, *op. cit.*, p. 44.

<sup>25</sup> Walker, *op. cit.*, I, p. 508.

<sup>26</sup> Trout, *op. cit.*, p. 41.

<sup>27</sup> Ingram, *op. cit.*, p. 619.

<sup>28</sup> Trout, *op. cit.*, p. 41.

<sup>29</sup> Walker, *op. cit.*, I, p. 508.



Only 5,000 Virginians appeared for their Virginia Day, but this did not dampen general interest in that state's program.<sup>30</sup> Partridge cites these ceremonies as part of his charge that the whole Centennial "in spite of its vast size and its determination to be up to date" partook of the nature of an "overdressed county fair."<sup>31</sup> In one event, popularly supposed to appeal to Southern chivalry, fifteen knights representing the Thirteen Original States, the Union, and the Centennial speared at one and one-half inch red rings in what was meant to be a Medieval tourney. The Centennial representative came out only second, having been bested by Delaware. The winner had the privilege of crowning Miss Parke P. Perkins Queen of Love and Beauty at ceremonies that evening.<sup>32</sup>

### IX. The Pursuit of Culture

If the Centennial was a glorified county fair, certainly its deference to the arts was somewhat contrary to the bumpkin tradition. There was art aplenty, even if there was also prejudice against it. Americans had long been afraid of the fine arts. There were only a few museums in the United States at this time.<sup>1</sup> In the seventies and eighties Americans were "suspicious" of art in general, especially from a moral point of view.<sup>2</sup> In conservative Boston at this period an outraged parson scholded a young lady for working in such a place as the art museum, and it was suggested that the "least she could do to prove that she was pure in mind was to make aprons for all the nude statues in the galleries."<sup>3</sup> This extreme priggishness was not confined to Boston, since in Philadelphia itself the academy had certain days for women so that they might gaze on plaster casts of antique statuary without being embarrassed by the presence of masculine eyes.<sup>4</sup>

What Partridge has called this "nasty nice" attitude toward the nude was reflected at the Centennial in the American sculpture displayed there.<sup>5</sup> Ingram considered Howard Robert's *Premier Pose* as the most "admirable nude" in the American section of Memorial Hall. The statue was that of a "young girl who was shrinking from exposing herself in the studio of the artist."<sup>6</sup>

<sup>30</sup> Ingram, op. cit., p. 634.

<sup>31</sup> Partridge, op. cit., p. 634.

<sup>32</sup> Ingram, op. cit., pp. 634-635.

<sup>1</sup> Oberholtzer, op. cit., p. 188.

<sup>2</sup> Wellman, op. cit., p. 288.

<sup>3</sup> Partridge, op. cit., p. 166; Wellman, op. cit., p. 288.

<sup>4</sup> Wellman, op. cit., p. 288.

<sup>5</sup> Partridge, op. cit., p. 166.

<sup>6</sup> Ingram, op. cit., p. 371.

A liberal education in the arts was available at the Centennial from two sources: loans by wealthy American collectors and from foreign nations. Among the famous artists shown by their American owners were Vandyke, Bonheur, Del Sarto, and Murillo.<sup>17</sup> The British were especially generous in their art collection, the most representative and the best catalogued at the Centennial.<sup>18</sup> Great names from every period were included in the British display.<sup>19</sup> Queen Victoria even sent some of her etchings for the Woman's Pavilion.<sup>20</sup> Spain exhibited Murillo's "Christ" and a portrait by Velasquez.<sup>21</sup>

Despite her great artistic development during the Renaissance, Italy sent a few treasures to Philadelphia.<sup>22</sup> It was the French collection, however, that evoked charges that it was entirely unrepresentative and undistinguished.<sup>23</sup> To one observer, at least, it was "painful to pass the French rooms deprived of all classical names," although as he said, the "nudities are sufficiently abundant for those who choose to pick them out."<sup>24</sup> The French Art Pavilion was scornfully termed a "shop of very poor mantle clocks and bronzes."<sup>25</sup>

The German collection at Memorial Hall consisted chiefly of domestic scenes, with a devotional picture here and there. Regarded as of more than "ordinary merit," sentimentality seems to have been rife in these paintings. A. Scharwz's "Broken Flowers" was a noticeable item in the exhibit. Bronze busts of the Emperor, the Crown Prince, Bismarck, and Humboldt "met the eye at every turn"<sup>26</sup> as examples of the spirit of militarism rapidly developing in that country.

The American populace eagerly embraced its first real opportunity to see great masterpieces at first hand. No part of the exhibition was so crowded as the art galleries, "even on the 25¢ days."<sup>27</sup> Having once seen good art, the general public was profoundly impressed. Hamlin sees the Centennial Exhibition as marking the "dawn of a new era in American art."<sup>28</sup>

<sup>17</sup> *Official Catalogue*, I, pp. 37, 38.

<sup>18</sup> E. Shinn, "British Paintings," *Nation*, XXII (May, 1876), p. 347.

<sup>19</sup> *Official Catalogue*, I, p. 125.

<sup>20</sup> Ingram, *op. cit.*, p. 428.

<sup>21</sup> *Official Catalogue*, I, p. 125.

<sup>22</sup> *Ibid.*, I, pp. 110-120.

<sup>23</sup> *Ibid.*, I, p. 468.

<sup>24</sup> E. Shinn, "French Art," *Nation*, XXIII (September, 1876), p. 193.

<sup>25</sup> "Closing Days," *loc. cit.*, p. 97.

<sup>26</sup> Ingram, *op. cit.*, pp. 251, 432, 453.

<sup>27</sup> "Closing Days," *loc. cit.*, p. 99.

<sup>28</sup> Hamlin, *op. cit.*, p. 457.

The statue does not seem to have caused quite the sensation among the avidly curious as did Hiram Power's *Greek Slave* of Crystal Palace fame; but it must have been in violent contrast with the superb disregard of the Elgin Marbles lent to the Centennial by the British.<sup>7</sup>

William Dean Howells noted that "the wax Cleopatra which explicitly advertises the Museum of Anatomy... causes it to have an undue popularity."<sup>8</sup> Doubtless, this was in the fine tradition of those art lovers who turned the crank at the Crystal Palace to make Powers' marble women "slowly revolve in her touching virginal shame."<sup>9</sup>

"Anxious gentility" was also evident in the paintings shown at the Centennial.<sup>10</sup> The two contemporary painters receiving most notice from critics present were Eastman Johnson and LaFarge. Ingram seemed rather well impressed by the former's "Old Stage Coach" and other native scenes.<sup>11</sup> *The Nation* however, predicted oblivion to come for the artist, not for his imitation of any foreign school, not for any offensive pretense, "but only that he is washy and it is easy to forget him."<sup>12</sup> LaFarge the same prophet damned with faint — and seemingly just — praise for drawing flowers that were "the most harmonious ornaments imaginable."

When not wholly innocuous, contemporary painting was strident, as witnessed by the largest canvas in Memorial Hall, Rothermel's "Battle of Gettysburg."<sup>13</sup> That the picture attracted much attention seems only to emphasize the native public's attitude toward the arts and to prove *The Nation's* contention that historical painting had become a lost art in the western hemisphere.<sup>14</sup>

Fortunately for the visitors at Philadelphia, a number of paintings from the brushes of Colonial masters were present in a sprinkling of portraits by Peale, Trumbull, Gilbert Stuart, and Copley.<sup>15</sup> It is interesting to note that one authority blamed the advent of photography for the drastic decline evident in portraiture.<sup>16</sup>

<sup>7</sup>Wellman, *op. cit.*, p. 36; Trout, *op. cit.*, p. 82.

<sup>8</sup>Howells, *op. cit.*, p. 93.

<sup>9</sup>Wellman, *op. cit.*, p. 36.

<sup>10</sup>E. Shinn, "American Art," *Nation*, XXIII (July 29, 1876), p. 71.

<sup>11</sup>Ingram, *op. cit.*, p. 373.

<sup>12</sup>Shinn, "American Art," *loc. cit.*, p. 71.

<sup>13</sup>Ingram, *op. cit.*, p. 372.

<sup>14</sup>Shinn, "American Art," *loc. cit.*, p. 71.

<sup>15</sup>*Official Catalogue*, *op. cit.*, I, pp. 47, 50, 52; Ingram, *op. cit.*, p. 373.

<sup>16</sup>Shinn, "American Art," *loc. cit.*, p. 71.

Contact with the various peoples of the world, their art and their products made for a more cosmopolitan viewpoint. Also, contact with persons from various sections of this country helped to promote a feeling of national unity and pride.

The new dawn spread its light into deeper recesses than the mere lack of artistic appreciation. It penetrated American folkways. The Centennial found the United States a land capable of great material prosperity, even though that prosperity was then in a temporary eclipse. It found the American people still divided by the bitterness of the recent Civil War, unbelievably naïve culturally and artistically, saddled by the prudish narrowness that eventually made the term "Victorian" a symbol of reproach. It found also a nation with an underlying basis of optimism and a keen willingness to embrace opportunities for change to new and better ways. The Centennial pictured a cultural America, after a century of national existence, still isolated and still somewhat crude, but willing to learn.<sup>29</sup>

The educational exhibits of the Centennial were an indication that Americans were going about their search for culture systematically, if somewhat slowly. One of the most significant patterns of our national culture has always been a sublime faith in the value of education. Yet, American education in 1876 simply did not equal the best that the European nations afforded at this period. That there had been some progress was certain. The Massachusetts reproduction of a school house of 1776 with backless wooden forms and a rough deal table for its furniture, with a Bible printed in ancient characters and a primer for its only texts seemed quite primitive as compared to Massachusetts schools in 1876.<sup>30</sup> Yet, it is doubtful that many of the schools in remote country districts were much better off except in the matter of slightly improved texts. As one educator confessed, our schoolhouses were at once "our glory and our shame."<sup>31</sup> The Centennial Commission laid down some far-sighted rules for school plants that have only in recent years making much headway in school architecture. They pointed out the faults common to our school buildings: multistory construction, in defiance of the rules of safety, and inadequate ventilation and lighting in defiance of the rules of health.<sup>32</sup>

Some of the nations exhibiting at the fair were already giving much attention to student health and general well-being in their specifications for school construction. Norwegian pupils were "not often found at the end of

<sup>29</sup> Partridge, *op. cit.*, p. 119.

<sup>30</sup> Walker, *op. cit.*, IV, p. 370.

<sup>31</sup> *Ibid.*, VIII, p. 222.

<sup>32</sup> *Ibid.*, VIII, pp. 222-223.



their studies among the crippled and broken in health."<sup>33</sup> The Belgians were especially foresighted in their attention to "health, comfort, and morals" in the planning of school buildings, as shown by their model room for a primary school.<sup>34</sup>

The Centennial paved the way for the future development of public education in a number of other fields, the most outstanding being (1) improved methods of instruction; (2) improved facilities for teacher training; (3) the education of women; (4) the education of the handicapped; (5) adult education; (6) vocational education; (7) and the enrichment of the existing curriculum.

The most spectacular of the new developments was the introduction of the Froebel system to the United States. On the continent there had been much experimentation in the education of the young child. In large cities like New York, Philadelphia, and Boston private kindergartens had been established to utilize the fruits of European experiments, but the general public had remained unconcerned. In an attempt to break down this solid wall of indifference a number of far-sighted women under the guidance of Miss Elizabeth Peabody constructed the most interesting of all the educational exhibits. Eighteen children from the Northern Home for Friendless Children at Philadelphia were taught in a small building erected near the Women's Pavilion along the lines set down by Froebel for infant education. That this undertaking was eminently successful is proved by the statement that when "in operation — as it was during a portion of three days in each week — the audience gallery was thronged with interested, we may say delighted spectators."<sup>35</sup>

The Crusading spirit for the new kindergarten instruction was not limited to this one exhibit. Miss E. M. Coe, at her own expense, erected a small building in which she displayed not only her adaptations of Froebel as seen in the work of her pupils at the "American Kindergarten," but also lectured upon the general theory of his method of teaching.<sup>36</sup> That the Froebel methods could be adapted to the use of public schools was shown in the exhibit of the St. Louis system, where under Miss Blow's leadership the only public kindergarten in America was in operation.<sup>37</sup>

Added impetus was given to the movement by a number of foreign exhibits. Austria had a model kindergarten outfit.<sup>38</sup> Sweden, the Netherlands,

<sup>33</sup>*Ibid.*, VIII, p. 156.

<sup>34</sup>*Ibid.*, VIII, p. 110.

<sup>35</sup>*Ibid.*, VIII, p. 78.

<sup>36</sup>*Ibid.*, VIII, p. 63.

<sup>37</sup>*Ibid.*, VIII, p. 328.

<sup>38</sup>*Ibid.*, VIII, p. 100.



and Switzerland showed with what salutary results Froebel's theories had taken root in their countries.<sup>39</sup>

One of the essential features of Froebel's teachings had been that from voluntary handling of the various "gifts" (a ball, a cylinder, clocks, etc.) the construction and formative faculties were developed.<sup>40</sup> An interesting corollary of this theory of object teaching was the strides that some of the foreign educators had taken in the development of models and the like designed to make ordinary instruction more meaningful. Thus the Dutch had a counting frame, a globe, and a clock for teaching children to tell time.<sup>41</sup> The Swedes had a frame in which pegs were fitted into holes of graduated sizes for instruction in decimal fractions, and a map designed to combine the study of geography with the pleasure of manipulating blocks.<sup>42</sup> Among the Russian novelties in this line were numerous models designed to make science, natural history, and ethnology more meaningful, and magic lantern slides.<sup>43</sup>

The effect of these ideas introduced to the general public at the Centennial were three-fold. The kindergarten has taken hold and the use of some of Froebel's "occupation" is universal in the teaching of primary pupils at the present time. Secondly, the slides and models have developed into a flourishing visual aids program in which the school's participation is likely to be limited only by the extent of its budget. From still another of Froebel's theories — that the basis of education is free self-activity — have sprung the problems and projects so dear to "progressive education."

The stress upon the necessity of improved methods of instruction served to highlight the general low quality of teacher preparation, even in the accepted scholastic fields. Much of the trouble stemmed from the American habit of looking upon teaching as a stepping-stone toward some more lucrative career rather than as a distinct profession.<sup>44</sup> This idea combined with limited funds for school support made teacher salaries very meager. As Horace Mann had complained earlier, the mills paid so much better wages that young teachers were being lured from their classrooms.<sup>45</sup> In 1876 the situation was not much better. Mississippi schools (many of them were closed) were hampered by the fact that warrants issued for salaries were worth anywhere from fifty cents to nothing on the dollar, and in South Carolina a treasurer had just eloped with

<sup>39</sup>Mitchell, "A Morning Stroll," *loc. cit.*, p. 748; Walker, *op. cit.*, VIII, pp. 151, 195.

<sup>40</sup>Friedrick Froebel, *The Education of Man* (New York, 1900), pp. 285-288.

<sup>41</sup>Walker, *op. cit.*, VIII, p. 151.

<sup>42</sup>*Ibid.*, VIII, p. 189.

<sup>43</sup>*Ibid.*, pp. 161, 164.

<sup>44</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 220.

<sup>45</sup>Merrill, *loc. cit.*, p. 304.

the school funds.<sup>46</sup> In Tennessee the average teacher's salary was only \$30.85 per month.<sup>47</sup> Wisconsin, which was not suffering from the Reconstruction, paid average salaries ranging from \$27.13 to \$43.50 in its rural schools and average salaries from \$39.40 (women) to \$109.40 (men) in its city systems.<sup>48</sup>

The Centennial did its share of publicizing the need for higher professional standards for teachers. *The General Report of the Judges* recommended the now common (then very rare) idea of practice teaching. The Normal School movement had already received some attention in such Northern States as Rhode Island and New York, although even in Massachusetts not more than one teacher in four had received any special training of this type.<sup>49</sup>

Since the majority of teachers in 1876 were women, the Centennial exhibits highlighting the new trend toward educating women were to be of two-fold significance.<sup>50</sup> They were to make for a higher standard of education in the public school systems and, at the same time, they forecast a remarkable emancipation for the women of the United States. The presence of the plans and views, catalogues, and reports from Mt. Holyoke, Wellesley, and Smith in the Massachusetts exhibit and Vassar and Elmira Female College in the New York section showed that these colleges were well on the way toward carrying out their founders' avowed intention of giving young ladies a higher education equal to that provided for young men.<sup>51</sup> Yet, it is doubtful if even the militant Miss Sophia could foresee that in less than a half century American women would have stormed most of the professional citadels and would share the masculine privilege of the franchise by constitutional amendment.

#### *X. Straws in the Wind*

At the Centennial, visitors could behold cherished relics of the Nation's glorious past — Jackson's old military coat, Washington's coach, Webster's plow. They could take pride in the country's present in the concrete evidence of increased population, for about the same number of admissions passed through the Centennial gates as this nation had people in the census of 1820.

<sup>46</sup> Walker, *op. cit.*, VIII, p. 212; *Atlantic Monthly*, XXXVIII (July, 1876), p. 128.

<sup>47</sup> Walker, *op. cit.*, VIII, p. 88.

<sup>48</sup> *Ibid.*, VIII, p. 93.

<sup>49</sup> *Ibid.*, VIII, p. 220.

<sup>50</sup> *Ibid.*, VIII, p. 216.

<sup>51</sup> *Ibid.*, VIII, pp. 47-48, 65, 66.

There was also increased wealth, rapidly developing industry, and a well developed agriculture. What the future held for a second century no one could predict, but the average visitor could well believe it would be more of the same, if not better. Some of the Judges — as their comments in the awards section prove — could see a bit farther into the future than the layman because they could envision great possibilities in some of the novel gadgets that the public were prone to laugh at as "crackpot." But, even the judges had their limitations as prophets.

Now some aspects of the future are — allowing a reasonable margin for error and no great natural catastrophe — fairly easy to predict, because they are logical developments growing out of past events. One could, for instance, look at Machinery Hall and foretell that the United States was becoming one of the world's great industrial nations. Less obvious auguries of things to come — politically, economically, and socially — were at Philadelphia, but their true significance escaped all but a chosen few.

One could, for example, hear the "eloquent" speech by Rutherford B. Hayes, the current Republican candidate for President, during his visit to the Centennial, and foretell that because the party machine still kept its strangle hold on the South one was probably seeing a future President.<sup>1</sup> It would have been well-nigh impossible to look at four-year old Calvin Coolidge taken by his parents to the Centennial and say that here was a future President of the United States. If Master Coolidge failed to impress visitors to the Centennial it is only fair to state that the neglect was mutual; the Centennial made so little impression upon his youthful mind that he later failed to remember visiting it at all.<sup>2</sup>

Few if any of the crowds cheering Dom Pedro, the social lion of the Centennial, could foresee that the very good qualities that made him so well-beloved in the United States during his visit here — his liberalism, his respect for individual freedom, his amiability, his international viewpoint, his very deep interest in education — were even then sowing the seeds for his own dethronement thirteen years later. The Brazilian exhibit contained many proofs of the Emperor's sincere interest in furthering the cause of education in his backward land.<sup>3</sup> Yet it was within the educated classes that radical doctrines, unchecked because of his extreme liberalism, took root, "creating a desire for change and culminating in the Military coup of November, 1889, by which the monarchy was replaced by a republican form of government."<sup>4</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Trout, *op. cit.*, p. 224.

<sup>2</sup> *Idem.*

<sup>3</sup> Ingram, *op. cit.*, p. 502.

<sup>4</sup> "Brazil," *Encyclopedia Britannica*, eleventh edition (New York, 1911), IV, p. 462.

That Dom Pedro had a sincere interest in the progress of arts and science was evinced not only by his very presence at the Centennial but also by his actions at Philadelphia. It was Dom Pedro who shared with Grant the honor of turning the screw of the Corliss engine. It was Dom Pedro who, accompanied by the Empress, went early one Sunday morning to Judge's Hall for a testing of Mr. Bell's revolutionary but little noticed telephone.<sup>5</sup> That Brazil was beginning to be industrialized under his enlightened patronage was amply demonstrated by the machine tools produced there on display at the Exposition.<sup>6</sup> It was during a later trip of Dom Pedro to the United States and Europe to get new ideas for improvements along this line, that the conspirators against their popular ruler got nerve to spring their *coup d' état*.<sup>7</sup>

Other straws in the wind of destiny were the presence of the Governor General of Canada and the Japanese at the Centennial. Lord Dufferin's presence was one of the earliest indications of an entente between the two largest North American countries, despite recent troubles over fisheries, over claims arising from the Fenian raids, and over the fact that Canadians had aided the Confederacy.

The appearance of the Japanese at an international exposition was still something of a novelty. From the seventeenth century until Perry's exposition near the middle of the nineteenth, Japan had lived in voluntary seclusion. In the sixties the last of the shoguns had sent his brother to the Paris Exhibition as a part of his plan for westernizing his country.<sup>8</sup> The Japanese had proposed an ambitious exhibit at the Vienna Exposition, but unavoidable delay had prevented anything there like the elaborate display to be sent to Philadelphia.<sup>9</sup>

Because the United States had been one of the leaders in paving the way for a modernized Japan, the attitude of American visitors to the Japanese exhibit was likely to be friendly, if somewhat patronizing. The quaintness of the Japanese struck the contemporary observer, who was amazed by the taste for the grotesque in their figurines, usually caricatures of official or domestic life.<sup>10</sup> One marveled at the skill and infinite patience involved in the production of more ambitious articles like one bronze vase, which represented 2,250 days of steady labor.<sup>11</sup> At the same time one overlooked the true

<sup>5</sup> Trout, *op. cit.*, p. 244.

<sup>6</sup> G. E. Waring, "Brazil in Agricultural Hall," *Nation*, XXIII (August, 1876), p. 282.

<sup>7</sup> "Brazil," *Encyclopedia Britannica*, IV, p. 462.

<sup>8</sup> "Japan," *Encyclopedia Britannica*, eleventh edition (New York, 1911), XV, p. 240.

<sup>9</sup> Ingram, *op. cit.*, p. 560.

<sup>10</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 562.

<sup>11</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 560.



significance of cheap Japanese plows successfully imitating their American models.<sup>12</sup>

On every hand the Japanese were praised for their alertness and commercial acumen, for who could see in a handful of art dealers the embryonic business men who were to crowd European and American exporters in the world markets? Who could look at the hand-made ceramics, the old and new bronzes, the little jewel cabinets decorated with colorful lacquers, and see cheap mass-produced goods that could undersell western products to such an extent that the "yellow peril" would become economic as well as political. Not being a prophet, the Centennial visitor would overlook the faint clue furnished by the plows and would stare at the representatives of this strange people newly emerged from feudalism, and the gazer's mind would be troubled by no deeper problem than the popular debate over whether or not the Japanese Pavilion had really been erected without nails.<sup>13</sup>

Most Americans at the Centennial were even quite unaware of the revolutionary changes augured by the exhibits from their own country. The possibilities of the typewriter, the telephone, the can opener, the automobile, and the dynamo were scarcely observed by the average visitor. The distance between Independence Hall and Fairmont Park was short geographically, but it traversed a whole century of time. By the end of its first century the nation had sprawled its bulk all the way from the Atlantic to the Pacific. True the lands between were not yet firmly in American hands — or at least white American hands; and in the very year of the Centennial Sitting Bull massacred Custer's troops at Little Big Horn. In the century to come the Centennial visitor and his descendents would see Americans fighting on foreign soil, not at home. There would be frontiers to conquer, but frontiers of time and space, not physical frontiers. There would be expansion, not so much territorial as economic. There would be internal struggles, not so much sectional as social and ideological. Men would hear well beyond the range of Mr. Bell's little boxes and they would be able to see what they heard. But the astounding events and miracles of the future the American could take in his stride, for the Centennial American was already beginning to realize that in his amazing country even the impossible was possible.

<sup>12</sup>Waring, "Agriculture Hall," loc. cit., p. 88.

<sup>13</sup>Ingram, op. cit., p. 569.



## REVIEWS

### *Lyman Draper, Onetime Mississippian*

by

Joha K. Bettersworth

Although most American readers probably never heard of Lyman Copeland Draper, every American historian has. It was he who salvaged for posterity a host of "border historical facts and documents" chronicling "that interesting band of worthies" who peopled our first American West.

For years Draper roamed the American countryside persuading "old pioneers and their descendants" to share with him their memories and their family papers. Thus he assembled a "durable monument of learning and civilization" that ranks as one of our best collections of frontier Americana. A "Historical Society in himself," he was the moving spirit and the perennial corresponding secretary of the Wisconsin Historical Society, which inherited his collections. Now, a century after Draper's arrival in Wisconsin, the society has honored him with a lively biography by Professor William B. Hesseltine.

Born in upstate New York in 1815, Draper was himself a son of the frontier. The three loves of his youth were the Baptist Church, the Democratic Party, and the frontier hero. Almost a frontier hero himself, Draper lived for a time on the Mississippi frontier. It was in 1840, when the Democratic Party, which found itself as unsettled as Draper, was desperately battling the Whigs. The Democrats of Pontotoc, only recently claimed from the Indians and currently without benefit of journalism, needed an editor for a sometime weekly known as the *Mississippi Intelligencer*. Draper sought the job and ended up as a somewhat mortgaged part-owner. The revitalized journal became the *Spirit of the Times*. Soon after it began to appear, Draper had the report that the spirit of the times was Whiggish, not Democratic; for this was the year when the Democrats were "sung down, drunk down, and lied down" in the famed "Log-Cabin and Hard-Cider campaign.

The election over, Draper amused his readers with historical sketches covering such subjects as Aaron Burr and the War of 1812. Meanwhile, he boosted Pontotoc and mounted the local Mississippi Democratic bandwagon of repudiation of the Union Bank bonds. But the *Spirit of the Times* did not prosper. Soon Draper gave up the pen and turned to the Pontotoc sod, which did not support him either. Soon he was off again, pursuing the chain of events which was to take him eventually to Wisconsin.

<sup>1</sup> William B. Hesseltine, *Pioneer's Mission: The Story of Lyman Copeland Draper*, Madison, Wisconsin Historical Society, 1954.

Once in Wisconsin, his talents for historical collecting had free rein. A veritable historical circuit rider, his foot was ordained to be forever in the road. In thirty-six years he travelled 41,000 miles. Eventually he was to be known up and down the Mississippi Valley as "the man who stole all our documents and carried them off to Wisconsin."

Dubbed "Plutarch of the West" by his alma mater, Draper was not a maker of many books. Unfortunately, he was allergic to writing. The prospect of starting a book laid him low with all sorts of psychosomatic ailments, including a manual paralysis euphemistically described as writer's cramp. Daniel Boone and George Rogers Clark were only two of the victims of this literary absenteeism. Meanwhile, Draper frittered away at reports, annual "collections," promotional brochures, and a farm and home encyclopedia entitled *A Helping Hand*. "Others," wrote an outraged friend, "can write of farming. You know the border."

Draper's persistent phobia was not exercised by his eventual conversion to spiritualism following assurance by the spirit of one "Bud" Morgan that Draper would "get a book out in 1870." To Bud's confounding, Draper's next book was a hodgepodge extracted by a frustrated publisher in 1881 for the 1880 centennial of King's Mountain.

Actually, Hesseltine's "Johnny Appleseed of culture" did not need to write books; Draper's fame proved to be in the books that other men wrote. Witnessing in his day the secession of historical studies from general literature, Draper abetted scientific history by providing it with a model laboratory. No wonder his historical society has been emulated far and wide and succeeding generations of state archivists have made him their special saint.

#### *Publications Received*

Buchanan, William, "How Others See Us," *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, CCXCV (September, 1954), 1-11.

Dickins, Dorothy; Ferguson, Virginia; and Fanelli, Alex, *Attitudes of Rural School Children Towards Several Food Production and Canning Activities*, State College, Miss., Agricultural Experiment Station, Bulletin 519, May, 1954. 41 pp.

Dickins, Dorothy, and Others, *Collection Methods in Dietary Surveys: A Comparison of the Food List and Record in Two Farming Areas in the South*, Southern Cooperative Series, Bulletin 23 (April, 1952). 66 pp.

Pedersen, Harald A., "Mechanized Agriculture and the Farm Laborer," *Rural Sociology*, XIX (June, 1954), 143-151.

*Tomorrow's Community: A Guide for Ambitious People Wanting Better Communities*, Jackson, Miss. Economic Council, August, 1954. 96 pp.

### Activities

**RESEARCH CLEARING HOUSE AT STATE IN DECEMBER.** On December 2 the fall seminar meeting of the Mississippi Research Clearing House will meet with Mississippi State College as host. The theme of the meeting will be "Planning and Research in Mississippi — 1954." The principal address will be given by John M. Peterson, of the Government and Economics Division, T.V.A. The subject of Mr. Peterson's address will be: "What Is Mississippi's Industrial Potential?" Two panel discussions will be held during the day. In the morning the panel subject will be "Community Research — What Does It Offer Mississippi?" The afternoon panel will be concerned with "The Role of Specialized Research." The seminar will be held in the new Alumni-Student Building.

**COMMUNITY LEADERSHIP STUDY.** A study of attitudes of community leaders toward the major problems facing their communities today will be sampled in a survey conducted by the Social Science Research Center of persons attending a series of conferences on Community Organization being held by the Mississippi Economic Council in North Mississippi. Alex Fanelli, assistant professor of sociology and rural life, is conducting the field work on this study.

**EASTBURN ADDRESSES ROUND TABLE.** Colonel C. P. Eastburn, who became chief of the Mississippi Military District on September 1, delivered an address on "political and Economic Developments in Berlin Since World War II" at the first fall meeting of the Social Science Round Table on October 6. Col. Eastburn, a native Mississippian, graduated from West Point in 1930. He served 34 months in the European Theater of Operations during World War II and was commander of the 894th Tank Destroyer Battalion during the Tunisian Campaign. He joined the 9th Infantry Division in Sicily and was Executive Officer of the 60th and 47th Infantry Regiments in England, France, Belgium and Germany. After World War II, Col. Eastburn completed a 10-month course at the Command and General Staff College, Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, and served three years as assistant professor of military history at United States Military Academy, West Point, New York. In May, 1951, he joined the 2nd Armored Division, with which he arrived in Germany, and was later transferred to Berlin. Col. Eastburn's decorations and stars for the Tunisian, Normandy, Northern France and Rhineland Campaigns. Col. Eastburn's visit was under the sponsorship of the Mississippi State R. O. T. C., and Col. John W. Thames, who recently assumed duties at the college as P. M. S. & T., introduced Col. Eastburn.

**DAYTONA BEACH MEETING.** Dr. Harold F. Kaufman, head of the division of Sociology and Rural Life, and Dr. Roscoe J. Saville, head of the department of agricultural economics, represented Mississippi State College at a planning conference held at Daytona Beach, Florida, September 10-12. The purpose of the meeting was to plan a Conference on Agricultural Sciences to be held next winter. Dr. Kaufman served on a panel on development of rural communities, and Dr. Saville on a panel on farm efficiency.

NOTICE TO READERS OF THE

*Mississippi Quarterly*

The October issue goes to press too early to carry a comprehensive report on activities of social scientists both on the campus at Mississippi State and among our fellows in the state and neighboring areas. It is hoped that the January issue may contain the story complete. To this end, will you please fill out the information blank below and return to the editor, Box 148 State College, Mississippi not later than November 15th:

Your name: \_\_\_\_\_ Position: \_\_\_\_\_

Institution, Agency, or Department: \_\_\_\_\_

Recent Honors, Promotions, etc: \_\_\_\_\_

Professional Activities (Meetings, etc., including papers read or addresses given: \_\_\_\_\_

Research in progress: \_\_\_\_\_

Publications: \_\_\_\_\_

ON BACK PLEASE GIVE INSTITUTIONAL OR AGENCY NEWS OF INTEREST TO SOCIAL SCIENTISTS (Staff changes, graduate fellows, projects, etc.)